

# Effects of Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy Training on Work Stress of Junior Police Officers in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria

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## ABSTRACT

*This study investigated the effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training on work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan, Nigeria. The study adopted a pretest-posttest, control group Quasi-experimental design. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 60 participants from three police divisional command in Ibadan. The participants were randomly assigned to treatment and control groups. The two treatment groups were exposed to eight-week training in emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training, while participants in the control group received no training. One validated instrument: The Police Stress Inventory (PSI) was used and four hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using Analysis of Covariance and MCA. The results of the study revealed that there was significant main effect of treatment on junior police officers ability to manage work stress. Also, the findings indicated that Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy Training were effective in the management of work stress among junior police officers. However, the results further revealed that there was no significant difference in the main effect of age between (younger and older); gender (male and female) on the work stress of junior police officers participants. Likewise, the three way interaction effect of treatment with age and gender was not significant. Therefore, police authorities should adopt the two interventions as to effectively manage the reoccurring issue of work stress that is negatively impacting on the professional competence of police officers in Nigeria.*

**Keywords:** Work stress, Police officers, Emotional intelligence, Gender, Age, Self-efficacy.

## INTRODUCTION

Professionally, the desire and public expectations on police officers to ensure a safe society is quite stressing, coupled with the fact that the hazardous nature of policing and law enforcement has adverse implications on the well-being of police officers. This is premised on the backdrop that police officers work stress manifest in ways that can hurt fellow officers, their loved ones, suspects and the public. Also, more often than not, work stress among junior police officers could cause burnout, lower tolerance levels, poor judgment, substance abuse, health problems, deteriorating relationships with family and friends, low productivity and the use of excessive force. This makes work stress among junior police

officers a phenomenon that is devastating and militating against the realization of a safe, secured and crime free Nigerian society due to its negative impact on the competence of officers in the act of policing and police related activities in Nigeria. However, work-related stress is a problem in many occupations in today's society (Ainsworth, 2002) and police officers are no exception in this respect. According to Andersson, Swenson and Clay (1995) there are few professional groups that encounter such a broad spectrum of stressors as police officers. Christianson and Granhag (2004) found that, compared to other occupations, there is an elevated risk for police officers to be exposed to stressful and traumatic situations. In congruence, Patterson, Chung and Swan (2011) posit that stress has been found to not only affect police officers' job performance, but their personal lives and relationships as well. Police officers are first responders to potentially stressful situations, their ability to successfully manage stress is critical not only to their own mental health but to the safety of society as a whole. They further aver that research has found that police officers who have difficulties coping with stress exhibit maladaptive behaviour and personality traits such as aloofness, authoritarianism, cynicism, depersonalization, emotional detachment, suspiciousness, and excessive use of alcohol.

High levels of stress can lead to serious physiological (headaches, stomachaches, backaches, ulcers, heart attacks) and psychological (anxiety, depression, flashbacks, and panic attacks) symptoms. Stress among police officers has also been connected to police misconduct and can also have a negative effect on the law enforcement organization due to lawsuits resulting from officers' performance. Other organizational effects include impaired officer performance, lower productivity, poor morale, poor public relations, labour-management problems, tardiness and officer turnover (Patterson, Chung & Swan 2011). Concurring, Adigun and Okoiye (2012) contend that stress is not something to be dismissed. Aside from the personal impact of stress on the individual worker, it could also affect how workers relate with their organisation. Thus, work stress is considered as one of the most important work-related psychological problems. In view of this context, stress is viewed as a transactional process that both influences and is influenced by cognitive appraisal, coping strategies, and stress outcomes such as impaired psychological well being (Stinchcomb, 2004).

Finn and Tomz (1997) describe four commonly used categories of police stress. One common stressor involves working in a bureaucratic organization where lack of resources, extraneous paperwork, and inattentive supervisors undermine an officer's sense of personal autonomy (Finn and Tomz, 1997; Wilson, Tinker, Becker and Logan, 2001). Another significant source of stress stems from working with the public, including both offenders and victims, which expose police officers to life threatening and traumatic situations that are beyond accidents and natural disasters (Finn and Tomz, 1997; Wilson, et al, 2001). Police officers also experience stress working within a criminal justice system they feel is overly lenient on offenders (Finn & Tomz, 1997). Finally, the family life of officers can be affected by their job-related stress and in turn contribute to their overall stress level, which can contribute to domestic violence, separation, and divorce (Finn & Tomz, 1997; Wilson, et al, 2001). This makes it imperative for professionals in the helping

professions to recognize the negative consequences associated with work-related stress and implement proactive strategies to help police officers adjust to the challenges of their job and expectations of the society. This measure would help reduce the negative consequences of work stress on police officers and the society at large. Supporting this point of view is Hurrell (1995) suggestion that stress management interventions for police officers should include training police officers to coping effectively with the challenges of contemporary policing.

According to Spielberger, Vagg and Wasala (2003), stress is a complex process that consist of three major mechanisms: sources of stress that are encountered in the work environment, the perception and appraisal of a particular stressor by an employee, and the emotional reactions that are a response to perceiving a stressor as threatening. Spielberger's State-Trait (ST) model of occupational stress focuses on the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of two major categories of stressors, i.e. job pressures and lack of support (Spielberger et al., 2003). Stress resulting from work is described as the mind-body arousal resulting from physical and/or psychological job demands. If a stressor is perceived as threatening then the person may react with anger and anxiety and this leads to the activation of autonomic nervous system. If the reaction continues to be severe, the resulting physical and psychological strain may cause adverse behavioural consequences (Spielberger et al., 2003).

Kumar and Rooprai (2009) contend that over the last decade Emotional Intelligence (EI) has drawn significant interest from academics, professional circle and HR practitioners throughout the world. Also, Adigun and Okoiye (2012) affirm that the development of emotional intelligence skills is important because it is an area that is generally overlooked when skills development programmes are designed. And yet research shows that emotions, properly managed, can drive trust, loyalty, and commitment. Thus, many of the greatest productivity gains, innovations, and accomplishments of individuals, teams, and organisations have occurred within such a framework (Cooper, 1997). Emotional intelligence is a social intelligence that enables people to recognise their own, and other peoples' emotions. Moreover, emotional intelligence enables people to differentiate those emotions, and to make appropriate choices for thinking and action (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Mayer and Salovey, 1993). It is an intelligence that may be learned, developed and improved (Perkins, 1994; Sternberg, 1996). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence includes an "ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions".

A related definition adds the "ability to adoptively recognize emotion, express emotion, regulate emotion and harness emotions" (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim, 1998). Thus, Goleman (1998) states that emotional intelligence plays a major role in improving performance at work as well as achievements in personal life. He claimed that approximately 90 % of the performance between high and average individuals at senior leader positions was due to emotional intelligence features rather than cognitive ones (Cha, Cichy and Kim, 2009). Lazarus (1999) states that drawing on the emerging evidence from neuroscience; the stress literature suggests that it would be

more fruitful when tackling stress issues to take into account the importance of emotions. Lazarus (1999) emphatically makes the point that treating stress and emotion as if they were separate fields is absurd and who notes "...where there is stress, there are also emotions..." (Clarke, 2000). Also, Matthew and Zeidner (2001) suggest that successful coping with stressful encounters is central to emotional intelligence. So in the light of these findings what implications does this have for stress management practitioners? Firstly, it suggests EQ can be developed and makes a difference to the experience of stress. Consequently, widening our view of the experience of stress within the broader context of emotions offers up real prospects for stress management practitioners to develop interventions that make a real difference to the quality of working life and emotional well-being of individuals and offers a real possibility of re-humanising organisations, fit to house the human spirit (Chapman, 2002).

The basic premise of self-efficacy theory is that "people's belief in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own actions" (Bandura, 1997) is the most important determinants of the behaviour people choose to engage in and how much they persevere in their efforts in the face of obstacles and challenges. Self-efficacy theory also maintains that these efficacy beliefs play a crucial role in psychological adjustment, psychological problems, physical health, as well as professionally guided and self-guided behavioural change strategies.

Most philosophers and psychological theorists agree that a sense of control over our behaviour, our environment, and our own thoughts and feelings is essential for happiness and a sense of well-being. When the world seems predictable and controllable, and when our behaviours, thoughts, and emotions seem within our control, we are better able to meet life's challenges, build healthy relationships, and achieve personal satisfaction and peace of mind. However, in stressful work situation(s) as experienced with policing and law enforcement duties and responsibilities officers are most times dumbfounded, confused and less confident in their ability to surmount challenges faced.

However, self-efficacy beliefs play a major role in a number of common psychological problems, as well as in successful interventions for these problems. Low self-efficacy expectancies are an important feature of stress and depression (Bandura, 1997; Maddux and Meier, 1995). Stressed and depressed people usually believe they are less capable than other people of behaving effectively in many important areas of life. Also, stress, dysfunctional anxiety and avoidant behaviour are often the direct result of low self-efficacy expectancies for managing threatening situations (Bandura, 1997; Williams, 1995). People who have strong confidence in their abilities to perform and manage potentially difficult situations will approach those situations calmly and will not be unduly disrupted by difficulties.

On the other hand, people who lack confidence in their abilities will approach them with apprehension, thereby reducing the probability that they will perform effectively. Those with low self-efficacy also will respond to difficulties with increased stress and anxiety, which usually disrupts performance, thereby further lowering self-efficacy, and so on. This implies that self-efficacy plays a powerful role in attempts to overcome problems

of work stress (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy, a social cognition construct (social learning) which refers to a person's self-beliefs in his or her ability to perform specific tasks (Bandura, 1991), has been shown to be a reliable predictor of both motivation and task performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989) and to influence personal goal setting (Wood, Bandura and Bailey, 1990). According to Bandura's (Bandura, 1991) description of the human cognitive self-regulation system, self-efficacy beliefs are the most central and pervasive influence on the choices people make, their goals, the amount of effort they apply to a particular task, how long they persevere at a task in the face of failure or difficulty, the amount of stress they experience and the degree to which they are susceptible to depression. Police work is often considered to be a highly stressful occupation. Not only are police officers frequently exposed to the most violent, antisocial and mistrustful elements of society, they are also expected to exercise discretion under critical circumstances and this ignites stress among officers either young or old (Violanti and Aron, 1994).

Therefore, it implies that there is no age at which police officers are free from stress. As officers chronologically age, and stay longer in the job, they are given more responsibilities and situational stressors become part of their lives which subsequently bring about consequences that would affect their well being. As adults, stress is a daily event, but children are not exempted from its impact and subsequent consequences. Symptoms of stress are especially apparent in teenagers (Bittman, 1999). Also, research shows that gender is a key explanatory factor in predicting the sources and coping strategies of stress among police officers (Brown and Campbell, 1990). For example, previous literature reveals that female police officers are likely to encounter higher levels of harassment, overt hostility and other negative social interactions on the job compared to their male counterparts (Martin, 1990). A common explanation for this maltreatment of female officers is that police organizational culture, in general, is adversarial towards them. Sever and Cinoglu (2010) found in their study that highly stressful officers are four times more likely to commit domestic violence. Further, they found that as regards gender matters in domestic violence, male officers are more inclined due to work stress to commit domestic violence compared to female officers. And when officers are involved in negative and critical situations at work, they are more likely to act violently at home. In view of this context therefore, this study investigated the effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training on work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan, Nigeria. While also considering the moderating effect of age and gender. In this study the following hypotheses are formulated.

1. There is no significant main effect of treatment on the work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan.
2. There is no significant main effect of age on the work stress junior of police officers in Ibadan.
3. There is no significant main effect of gender on the work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan.
4. There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, age and gender on the work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan.

## METHOD

A 3 x 2 x 2 Quasi-experimental factorial matrix design was used for this study. The variables considered are (i.e. emotional intelligence, self-efficacy training and control group); age (older and younger) police officers and gender (male and female) police officers. The population consists of all junior police officers serving in Ibadan. Sample The sample for this study consists of sixty (male and female) junior police officer; drawn from three police divisional commands in Ibadan with a mean age of 42.5 years. Sampling Technique The simple random sampling technique was used to select three police divisional commands and the sixty participants from different police departments used for the study. The Police Stress Inventory (PSI) was used to measure police officers work stress. Pienaar and Rothmann (2006) constructed the PSI for police officers in the South Africa based on the findings of several investigations regarding stressors specific to the police environment. The PSI focuses on common work situations that often result in psychological strain. Each of the 44 items describes a job-related stressor event and assesses both the perceived severity and frequency of occurrence of that event. It has a Cronbach Alpha of .89. Akhona (2008) also used this instrument in investigating job stress, burnout and coping strategies of South African police officers.

The researcher obtained permission from police authorities of the three divisional commands used for the study. The consent of participants was equally sought and obtained. Having sought and obtained the consent of the participants, the researcher randomly assigned the participants into three groups. This consists of two experimental groups and one control group. The treatment groups were trained while the control group members were engaged with their normal office work. The training was conducted \at the close of work by 4pm. The researcher conducted training sessions with the two experimental groups for a period of 8 weeks and for one hour each. The participants and the researcher agreed on suitable days of the week when the training sessions were held. The days and time were Mondays and Thursdays between 4pm - 5pm. The following statistical designs were used in this study: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### **Training Programme (Treatment Package)**

Experimental Group One: Emotional Intelligence Training

*Session One:* General orientation and administration of instrument to obtain pretest scores

*Session Two:* Discussion of the meaning of emotional intelligence

*Session Three:* Explanation of the relevance of emotional intelligence to stress management

*Session Four:* Discuss the core components of emotional intelligence e.g. self-awareness

*Session Five:* How to apply emotional intelligence in daily work activities

*Session Six:* Need to understand other people's emotions

*Session Seven:* Role-play of techniques learned

*Session Eight:* Revision of all activities learned in the previous sessions and the administration of post-test instrument as to obtain the post-test scores.

### **Experimental Group Two: Self-Efficacy Training**

Session One: General orientation and administration of instrument to obtain pre-test scores

Session Two: Discussion of the meaning of self-efficacy

Session Three: Explanation of the relevance of self-efficacy to stress management

Session Four: Discuss the core components of self-efficacy e.g. self-confidence, positive self-belief in own's ability to surmount challenges

Session Five: How to apply self-efficacy beliefs in daily work activities

Session Six: Need to be self-confident

Session Seven: Role-play of techniques learned

Session Eight: Revision of all activities learned in the previous sessions and the administration of post-test instrument as to obtain the post-test scores.

The result on table 2 showed that there was significant main effect of treatment in the pre-post work stress scores of junior police officers in the experimental and control groups. This means that there was a significant main effect of treatment in the mean posttest practice of work stress scores of junior police officers exposed to treatment and the control group. This also implies that junior police officers in the experimental groups benefited from the treatment package as it develop in them the ability to manage work stress than junior police officers in the control group who were not exposed to any treatment package Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant main effect of treatment on the work stress of junior police officers is rejected. Table 2 shows that there was no significant main effect of age in the pre-post work stress scores of junior police officers between younger and older junior police officers. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. Table 2 also shows that there was no significant main effect of gender in the pre-post work stress scores of junior police officers between male and female participants. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. In addition, table 2 shows that in the 3 way interactions, no significant interaction was found. This implies that the impact of the interaction of treatment, age and gender on the management of work stress of junior police officers was not high enough for it to be significant. Therefore the null hypothesis that there is no significant interaction effect of treatment, age and gender on the work stress of junior police officers is accepted.

The MCA as observed on Table 3 showed the performance of all the groups in work stress management. The emotional intelligence group had the highest adjusted posttest mean score followed by self-efficacy with the adjusted mean score while the Control group had the least adjusted posttest mean score. This indicates that junior police officers in the treatment groups had high positive attitude on their management of work stress while junior police officers in the control group had low ability to manage work stress. The MCA further revealed the differential-values of the pre and post treatment outcome and equally shows the effectiveness of the treatment package over the control (i.e. non-treatment group). These values were obtained by adding the grand mean with the respective adjusted deviation. The table also indicated that treatment accounted for as much as 13 percent of the variance of the junior police officers work stress scores while the remaining 87 percent are due to other unexpected sampling errors. The MCA table 3 shows that the mean score

for younger junior police officers is 10.15 while that of junior older police officers is 10.16. This shows that the mean difference in the impact of work stress between younger and older junior police officers is not significant. This implies that their age difference has no significant effect on their ability to manage work stress. The MCA table 3 further revealed that the mean score for male junior police officers is 10.35 while that of female junior police officers is 10.36. This shows that the impact of the difference of gender on junior police officers work stress is not significant. This is attained by adding the grand mean to the unadjusted variation figure of male and female of participants. The result of the findings of hypothesis one revealed that there was significant main effect of treatment on the pretest/posttest work stress scores of junior police officers in the experimental and control groups. Therefore the hypothesis is rejected. This means that the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy treatments for example (Explanation of the relevance of emotional intelligence to stress management: Discussing the core components of emotional intelligence e.g. self-awareness: Discussion of the meaning of self-efficacy: Explanation of the relevance of self-efficacy to stress management etc.) were effective in managing the negative impact of work stress on the well-being of police officers that participated in the intervention programme. The reason for this could be align with the fact that these junior officers realise the importance of the utilisation of the principles of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in management of stress, resolved to apply them to overcome their work stress challenges.

The result therefore attest to the fact that work stress can be managed to improve the functional competence of police officers in Nigeria with the effective use of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy intervention programmes. This measure would help reduce the negative consequences of work stress on police officers and the society at large. Supporting this point of view is Hurrell (1995) suggestion that stress management interventions for police officers should include training police officers to coping effectively, and in addition interventions should address the organizational environment and the connections between officers and the law enforcement organization.

The results of hypothesis two showed that there was no significant main effect of age in the posttest work stress scores of junior police officers between younger and older officers that participated in the intervention programme. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that there was no significant main effect of age in the work stress scores of younger and older officers participants exposed to the treatment programmes. The reason could be adjourned fact that policing as a career is naturally stressing. This is based on the point of view that in ensuring the maintenance of a secured and peaceful society, police officers have to deal with complex behaviour and human dynamics that require tasking competence. Thus, in order to unravel difficult work situation they are often stressed either they are young or old. In support is Violanti and Aron (1994) assertion that police work is a highly stressful occupation and not only are police officers frequently exposed to the most violent, antisocial and mistrustful elements of society, they are also expected to exercise discretion under critical circumstances and this ignites stress among officers either young or old. Therefore, it implies that there is no age at which police officers are free from stress. As officers chronologically ages, and stay longer in the job,



they are given more responsibilities and situational stressors become part of their lives which subsequently bring about consequences that would affect their well being. The result of hypothesis three revealed that there was no significant main effect of gender in the posttest work stress scores of junior police officers between male and female participants. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. This implies that the issue of gender identity did not influence the stress management capacity of participants. The reason for this could be that since they are exposed to same security risk, given same policing responsibility, they tend to face similar frustrating and absurd situation(s) while they carry out their duties. This occurrence makes them probably to experience similar pattern of stress and also tend to manage work stress adopting similar measures either they are male or female officers. Consistent with this assertion, is the report of Finn and Tomz, (1997); Wilson, et al, (2001) that another significant source of work stress for police officers either they are male or female stems from working with the public, including both offenders and victims, which expose police officers to life threatening and traumatic situations that are beyond accidents and natural disasters. Though, Sever and Cinoglu (2010) found that as regards gender matters in domestic violence, male officers are more inclined due to work stress to commit domestic violence compared to female officers.

The result of hypothesis four showed that there was no significant interactive effect in the interactions between treatment, age and gender on the posttest work stress scores of junior police officers participants. This suggests that the interaction of treatment, age and gender did not influence the posttest work stress scores of junior police officers participants. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. The reason for this could be that owing to the severity of police officers job description in Nigeria and the challenges of security, police officers, mostly the junior ones who are always at the forefront of attack and pressured by the government and public alike tend to experience similar routine pattern of stress and equally respond to situation(s) alike. This is in line with, Christianson & Granhag (2004) summation that compared to other occupations; there is an elevated risk for police officers to be exposed to stressful and traumatic situations. In congruence, Patterson, Chung and Swan (2011) posit that stress has been found to not only affect police officers' job performance, but their personal lives and relationships as well. Police officers are first responders to potentially stressful situations, their ability to successfully manage stress is critical not only to their own mental health but to the safety of society as a whole.

**Table 1:** A 3 x 2 x 2 Factorial Matrix Design determining the effects of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training on work stress of junior police officers in Ibadan.

Treatment	Male		Female		Total
	Younger Officers 25-39yrs	Older Officers 40-60yrs	Younger Officers 25-39yrs	Older Officers 40-60yrs	
A1 Emotional Intelligence	A1 B1n=6	A1 C1n=4	A1 B2n=5	A1 C2n=5	20
A2 Self-Efficacy	A2 B1n=4	A2 C1n=6	A2 B2n=6	A2 C2n=4	20
A3 Control Group	A3 B1n=7	A3 C1n=3	A3 B2n=4	A3 C2n=6	20
Total	17	13	15	15	60

**Source:** Survey, 2012

**Table 2:** Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of pre-post test interactive effects of work stress scores of junior police officers in the Treatment Groups, Age and Gender

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Covariates	1.092	1	1.092	.284	.595	
Main effects	63.325	4	15.831	4.118	.004	
Treatment Groups	50.847	2	25.424	6.613	.002	Sig.
Age	8.796	1	8.796	2.288	.133	n.s.
Gender	3.682	1	3.682	.958	.330	n.s.
2-way Interactions	28.274	5	5.655	1.471	.205	
Trt. groups x Age	16.400	2	8.200	2.133	.124	n.s.
Trt Groups x Gender	4.655	2	2.327	.605	.548	n.s.
Age x Gender	1.792	1	1.729	.450	.504	n.s.
Trt Groups x Age x Gender	3.919	2	1.960	.510	.602	n.s.
Explained	96.610	12	8.051	2.094	.023	
Residual	180.668	47	3.844			
Total	251.871	59	4.269			

**Source:** Survey, 2012

**Table 3:** Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) showing the direction of the results in the Pre-Post work stress of junior police officers according to Treatment Groups, Age and Gender

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted variation	Adjusted Mean Score	Eta	Adjusted for independent + covariates deviation	Beta
<b>Grand Mean = 10.48</b>						
Treatment Groups:						
Emotional Intelligence	20	.98	11.46		.92	
Self-Efficacy	20	.95	11.43		-.41	
Control	20	-.88	9.6		-.51	
				.32		.32
Age:						
Younger	32	-.33	10.15		.24	
Older	28	-.32	10.16		-.24	
				.16		.12
Gender:						
Male	30	-.13	10.35		-.18	
Female	30	-.12	10.36		.18	
Multiple R-squared						.127
Multiple R						.356

**Source:** Survey, 2012

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study revealed the complexity and challenges of modern day policing. Also, it gives credence to the fact that work stress can lead to serious physiological (headaches, stomachaches, backaches, ulcers, heart attacks) and psychological (anxiety, depression, flashbacks, and panic attacks) symptoms. Stress among police officers has also been connected to police misconduct and can also have a negative effect on the law enforcement.

However, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training intervention programmes, if appropriately used, could develop in police officers the skills, knowledge and expertise required to manage work stress and consequently enhance their performance. Therefore, it is germane that the government and police authorities ensure that police officers attend training programmes and workshops that would expose them to techniques, principles and method of modern policing as to make them more functional and stress free.

Using the appropriate psychological intervention, work stress of junior police officers could be managed as to make them more competent, functional and productive. The study provides reasonable information that can be applied in the management of stress related issues that impact negatively on the professional competence and well-being of junior police officers. The findings of the study highlight the fact that with the application of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training, junior police officers would turn from their violent nature to being pro-social, creative, supportive, pragmatic and efficient to guaranty a safe and secured society.

The government should employ the services of behaviour modification expert (counselling psychologist, sociologist, etc.) to train recruits in police training colleges as to produce officers that would understand and deal with the dynamics of human behaviour, be more ethical in their conduct, functional and productive. The government and police authorities should ensure that junior police officers attend training programmes and workshops that would expose them to techniques, principles and method of modern policing as to make them more functional and stress free. Police authorities should endeavour to give junior officer's task that they have the required competence, ability and capability to execute so as to prevent unnecessary stress.

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